592
342 magazines and pasted on the wall, and here he entertains visitors who come for conversation or study.

3

Types of Houses

342 In all the villages studied, the houses may be divided into three general categories: (1) the Japanese style house with the thatch or tile roof, (2) the smaller stone house with the Japanese type floor plan, and (3) various shacks resembling in some details the simple structure of the old Okinawan rural house.

[313] [439] The sturdy Japanese type house is made of excellent hardwoods imported from Japan or brought from the forests of northern Okinawa. This house was often constructed without nails. It was put together [335] by mortise and tenon joints, and also with a piece of wood, square on the edge and about three inches long which functions like a dowel. This is known as a kusabi. In modern houses, both of the simple and more complex types, nails are more commonly used.

[355] The eaves of this house are supported by strong poles, unfinished, usually from the Japanese redwood (suri in Japanese, Cryptomeria [410] japonica, D. Don) or the ihumaki (Podocarpus macrophyllus D. Don). The poles are placed on flat triangular stones for foundation support. The houses have plank floors. Both the tile and the thatch roof types (to be [352] described later) have the same floor plan with the size of the rooms determined by the number of mats (tatami in Japanese) desired.

The half tile, half thatch roof is not uncommon, an indication either of a roof partially destroyed by the war which has been repaired by thatch, or a thatched roof gradually being replaced by tile. This is a slow process, as tile is costly. Basically, all of these houses have the same general plan, except for differences in roof materials.

[355] The older Japanese type houses with a tile roof and the newer ones being built on that model are provided with a drain pipe for rain water catchment. This pipe, running along the length and the width of the [415] roof channels the water into a large tank on the ground, reducing the [312] labor involved in carrying water from village ponds or central springs. Many of these rain water catchments disappeared when the old houses were destroyed in the war. Drain pipes cannot be attached to the thatch. In general, rain water is not now a plentiful source of supply in the villages, though buckets and tubs are frequently put out during a heavy downpour, and this water is used for drinking and cooking until it begins to spoil. It may supplement the water carried from a central village faucet, the well, or a pond.

The construction of the Japanese type house is complex. Basically, the design of the house is derived from the arrangement of three rooms,

off a main road or village lane. (5) Forest lands (sanrin). This is an important classification in Matsuda, but of minor significance in Hamashiro and Hinatogawa. In the latter villages forest land is not recognisable because so many of the trees have been destroyed. In general, forest lands are community owned. (6) Shelter belts or groves of trees along the seashore or on crests of hills for typhoon protection. These are known as bōfurin. The trees are distinct from the forest lands; often they stand in isolated groves. In the south trees for typhoon shelters are confined to the settled area. There are no large groves surrounding and protecting the whole cultivated countryside. (7) Religious sites (haisho). These are small in area, the sites of buildings devoted to the local tutelary deities (ujigami). (8) The village community property (kuyūchi). This may include the village office site and school grounds. (9) A miscellaneous classification (zashuchi). This is also public property, including vegetable plots, small public squares, very small parks, ponds, road meeting places and the like. These combined areas are usually small. (10) In the Gushichan area, there is one further classification: destroyed land (tsuborechi). This is land in the war area which has not been or cannot be restored. The pieces are not large. During the war a bulldozer may have made a road out of this land; it may be filled with stones or the shallow top soil of the land may have been scraped off in leveling for an army post or camp.

The bases for grading land within each class are different. In Gushichan township, the main consideration in grading rice land is the availability of water. First class rice land is where the water is. In this township, there are seven grades of rice land, although any one village may have only four or five. The first five grades in the township are rice lands with two yields a year. Grades one through five are determined by the yield of the plot, through past experience. Grades six and seven are one crop areas. The distinctions between the grades can be seen in the following table:

Grade of Rice Land	Expected Yield in Koku per Chō
1	24
2	18
3	15
4	12
5	7.5
6	6.7
7	6.0

A koku is 5.12 US dry bushels. A chō is 3000 tsubo, about 2.45 acres.

If there is a drought in any year, the grades of land are not changed the following year, but the estimate of expected yield may

single criterion is nearness, providing the land has possibilities. Good land, unless of substantial area, if remote and far from roads, is very time consuming and inconvenient. 311

Genya land in the Oushichan area has two grades. The criterion here is the presence of grass and small shrubs that can be used for firewood. Grade two genya grows little or nothing either because of the large boulders or because it has too many small stones or unconsolidated rock with little vegetation. If it were not for stones or such topographical factors as steepness or ruggedness, some genya land could be classified as poor grade dry crop land. There are, as in rice land, tax differentials according to grade of hatake and genya land: [824] [134] [133]

Grade	Dry Crop Land Tax in Yen	Wild Land (Genya) Tax in Yen
1	13	2
2	12	1.80
3	11	
4	10	
5	9	
6	8	
7	7	
8	6	
9	5	
10	4	

[651]

In Ginoza-son, the land classification system is substantially the same. There are six different grades of land classified according to yield in go per tsubo. (A go is 1/1000 of a koku, a tsubo about 4 square yards). [804]

Grade	Yield	Remarks
1	5	Two annual plantings.
2	4	Two annual plantings.
3	3	Dependent entirely on amount of estimated rainfall.
4	2	
5	1.5	
6	1.0	Mountain paddy, very uncertain, depending on rainfall; occasionally two crops a year are possible.

[433] [241]

Dry crop land is judged by criteria similar to those in Oushichan-son. Grade 1 is good soil and convenient to water with good yields as shown by experience. Grades 2 and 3 are convenient to water, but soils are of lesser quality. The classification is also based on experience. Grade 4 is in low places, generally narrow ravines between steep wooded slopes. Grades 5 and 6 have little or no water, are stony, and inconvenient. [134] [312] [133]

In the areas studied, no serious sheet erosion was observed

No doubt this may be a problem in parts of Okinawa, but it is doubtful that this menace will threaten the habitability of the island. Occasionally one can see a freshly hoed field on a slope that is losing its soil during a downpour. But the fact that the hills and mountains are covered with vegetation, are not too steep, and that grasses and shrubs are cut off allowing the stubble with the roots to remain in the soil effectively binds the soil of the hills and at the same time prevents flash floods. With the exception of stony soils, the land of the areas studied had a plant cover. This statement is not inconsistent with the previous remarks regarding deforestation, as the disappearance of the pine, the cycad, and the pandanus has been offset by the spread of kaya (miscanthus) grass. Boundary paths also keep the soil in place. They often roughly follow the slope and are sufficiently crooked and winding and of sufficient depth to prevent washing away of large quantities of soil. While there is no complex irrigation system in these areas, the small ditches which carry the water down the slope are winding and covered on their borders by weeds. Occasionally one can see a farmer shovelling up the soil accumulated in a natural catchment in a bend of one of these ditches and restoring the lost soil to his land.

134 133 137 185 [487] [312]

In all areas, equally simple devices to protect the soil could be observed. Roadside borders of stone, like the stone of a rock garden, often line the fields adjoining main roads. (One could write a long essay on stones and the part they play in the culture of the people). These stones come from the fields. If fields do not have stone borders, weeds are left to grow. They are cropped, but the roots are left in the soil. In Hanashiro, stone fences on slopes and contour breaks are a common sight. Sometimes these have the appearance of blunt wedges, the end of the wedge going up the ravine. These stones have been painstakingly gathered from nearby areas.

185 417

Terracing is practiced in a crude form in these areas. It really is step or bench cultivation, the plots being above one another in step like order. The function of terracing is, in the case of the dry crop land, to bring more land under cultivation, protecting it from washing away; in the case of the rice fields, it supplies flat land for cultivation at different levels. In the areas studied, terracing did not go all the way up the mountain side, although this practice can be observed in parts of Okinawa.

185 241

Very frequently the ledges of the terraces are covered with a border of weeds or cropped grass which prevent soil runoff down the hill. In the Matsuda area, rice is grown up a narrow mountain valley, or ravine, with trees and shrubbery on the hillsides growing to the very edge of the cultivated plots. In rice terracing, the boundary paths often divide one step from another with openings in the ditches to allow the passage of water to the level below.

1: Glacken E-5 (1951-1952) 1953 AC7 Okinawa AC7

132 March through June is the season of greatest rainfall and therefore
731 of greatest flood danger. September and October rain is often light, and it is during this period that there is the greatest likelihood that the sweet potatoes will dry up. During the rainy season, there is flood damage to the rice and dry crop fields, especially if they are in the narrow ravines, or along small stream beds.

132 In Hanashiro, dependence on rainfall is immediate and direct.
312 There is no way of storing water in the mountains by accumulations
241 of snow. Runoff from the hills into the small streams is rapid. Short periods without rain are serious. The planting of the sweet potato is very sensitive to this factor. If one asks a farmer when he plants sweet potatoes, he always qualifies his reply by beginning, "If there is enough rain..."

241 There is in these villages no complex irrigation (kangai). In
312 Hanashiro, the flow of water through rice fields and its division are controlled by simple means. Water comes from the nearby hills, either in rivulets or in slightly wider ditches. In the former case, the water is divided by allowing the owner on one side of the stream to get water one day, diverting it on the next to the other side. The larger streams may be forked.

[133] Streams soon lose their identity as they descend from the hills to the lowlands, where they become the water of the paddy. The streams of Okinawa are hidden in the rice fields.

241 In Matsuda, the flow of water down the hillsides is controlled
311 largely by bench cultivation. Rice paddies go far up the narrow valleys
312 and ravines. When these have been converted to rice fields, the water flows into the highest level. A small aperture on the opposite side allows it to fall into the next lower paddy until the water reaches the level of the valley or lowland, where it may be further dispersed throughout rice fields, or trickle off again as a stream. In this way, the flow of the water, not too fast, not too sluggish, provides continually fresh water with its nutrients from the hillsides for each field, and makes possible the irrigation of large areas.

It is for these reasons that terracing is practiced. Cultivation is easier. So is irrigation. Soil runoff is avoided. Terracing is the only way that a ravine or a small slope can be used for paddies, for which a flat and level piece of land is required. Otherwise, the water necessary for the plant runs off.

241

Not all of the upland or slope cultivation is done by terracing, as we have seen. Crops other than rice are often grown on hillsides, or up slopes, less often following the contour of the land. The precautions here are also suited to the cultivation: weeds or grasses grow along boundary lines or divide off sharp drops, or small stone fences may be used.

In Nagamo, where there is no rice grown, there is little water from these sources. It comes from rainfall and amounts of sugar cane and sweet potato that are grown depend on its quantity and regularity. Water regardless of crop is a constant problem. [312]

In Okinawan agriculture, constant fertilization is necessary. There are too many people to leave land fallow in ordinary times. Each plot must be used if the farmer has the time and energy to do so. Since the island is in a humid subtropical climate, the organic materials in the soil (humus) are quickly oxidized. Porous soils encourage the leaching of minerals from the top soil, especially with torrential rains. The fewness of domestic animals increases the dependence on plant residues and artificial fertilizers. One of the commonest complaints of the Okinawan farmer, in addition to the poorness of his soil and crop damage from typhoons, is that it must be unceasingly fertilized. It is a treadmill. He must walk fast to stay in the same place. [134] [231]

There is very little difference in the use of fertilizers in the communities studied. Fertilizers most frequently used are:

(1) Composts. A typical mixture (though there are many combinations) may be composed of dried miscanthus, or any kind of grass, ashes and cinders, perhaps some pieces of charcoal, and goat droppings. This is left a month outside in a pile and put on the fields and hoed under.

(2) Plant residues. These are put on the soil, both of paddy and dry crop land, and hoed under. Plants are the greatest single source of fertilizer. The cut over rice plant is turned under in the paddy field. Tops of the sweet potato, if not used as slips or for food for animals, miscanthus grass, and burned rice hulls are other sources of fertilizer. [824]

(3) Animal manures mixed usually with pen grass. Animal fertilizers are not abundant, an indirect effect of the war which greatly reduced the number of horses, cattle, pigs, goats, and the smaller domestic animals. When available, goat, pig, or horse manures are used. Pig or goat pen grass is gathered up and spread on the fields. Pig manure is the best source of animal fertilizer, for pigs are the most numerous of the larger domestic animals. [727] [237] [231]

(4) Night soil. The use of night soil, called jinpun in Okinawan, has declined from pre-war times. It is often said that it is not used at all. But this statement must be qualified. It is [514]

of the young shoots from the seed beds to the paddy field, (4) the care of rice until its maturity, (5) the harvest, (6) threshing, milling, and hulling, (7) the uses of rice and its byproducts, and (8) types and preferences of rice. 243

The preparation and laying out of the seed bed. A seed bed (naidoko) is a plot of first grade land, well watered, specially chosen for this purpose. It is very small in area, often around 15 tsubo, or about 540 square feet. The seed bed also may be a portion of a larger field set apart for seedlings. In this case, small boundaries are made by earthen walls, apertures left for water to flow in and out, and the little plot is then prepared for the seedlings. Considerable care is taken in the preparation of the seed bed. The soil here must be finer and more carefully worked than the paddy field, since it receives the rice seed, not the seedlings. The soil is painstakingly worked, and, with the water added, becomes a thick smooth mud. Commercial fertilizers, composts, and less commonly, night soil are then applied. After the seed is sown, water, perhaps 2 1/2 inches deep is allowed in the bed. During germination, a slow steady irrigation, a washing by new water is maintained by controlling the water trickling in and out of the openings on either side of the field. [311] [134] [312]

The selection of the seed. The seed is taken from the harvest immediately preceding. After fall harvest around December, the rice fields are dug to prepare for the new planting in January or February. The seed used from this crop is tested in one of two ways. 243 242

In Matsuda, it is common for a farmer to fetch a bucketful of sea water. To this he adds a little more salt until the density of the water is sufficient to float an egg. The rice seed is put in the water. The light and undesirable grains rise to the surface. This salt water density method is apparently very old and originally came from China. [177]

Another method, based on the same assumption that the lighter grains make undesirable seed, is used in both villages. The rice is tossed in a round, shallow, winnowing basket, and the breeze carries off the undesirable seeds to the chickens. In the summer planting the seed, after this testing, is ready to sow. In the fall and winter planting, there is one further step. After the seed has been selected by the winnowing or the density method, it is soaked in water for four or five days. Following this, it is removed from the water, put in a tub, and covered. Warm water is added, the mixture is stirred and allowed to stand for another four or five days. The water is then poured off and seed has begun to germinate. The seedlings can now be planted in the seed bed.

Transplanting the young shoots from the seed bed to the paddy field. 243
In the meantime, the paddy fields have been prepared. After the harvest, the field is drained. Small clumps of cropped rice stalks stick up two or three inches where they have been cut with the small sickle or bill knife. This stubble is turned over either by hoeing, the usual way, or

1: Glacken E-5 (1951-1952) 1953 AC7 Okinawa AC7

Present day
clothing is of a non-descript character. The war 291
destroyed old stocks and villagers have been unable to buy much 727
new clothing. Many farmers and fishermen have one western style [292]
suit, shirt, necktie, and a pair of shoes, but these are worn [177]
only on rare occasions, such as having one's picture taken. Most
of the women still have a Japanese style kimono in storage. An
article of army clothing, mostly American but occasionally Japanese,
often is the basic garment whether it be a pair of trousers, a shirt,
or a field jacket. Older women still wear a cheap cotton kimono
usually indigo blue with white dots.

In work anything at hand is worn. Fishermen, farmers, workers 291
in the forest generally go barefoot the year round. Girls and young
married women are increasingly wearing cheap and attractive house
dresses which they prefer to the inconvenient kimono. Children's
clothing shows similar improvisation in the use of what is available.

In leisure hours, clogs (geta) are often worn by men, women, and
children, particularly in the evenings as a protection against snakes.
Some men wear shoes consistently, but they are most commonly worn
by officials, school teachers, or men in business.

There is no standard headdress. Hats are few. A few cone
shaped hats are worn in the rice fields. These are made from straw
or rush. An ordinary cotton cap with a visor is common. Men and
women frequently wrap a cloth, usually a piece of towelling, around
the head. A towel hanging from the back pocket of the trousers of a
young man is part of his summer equipment.

5

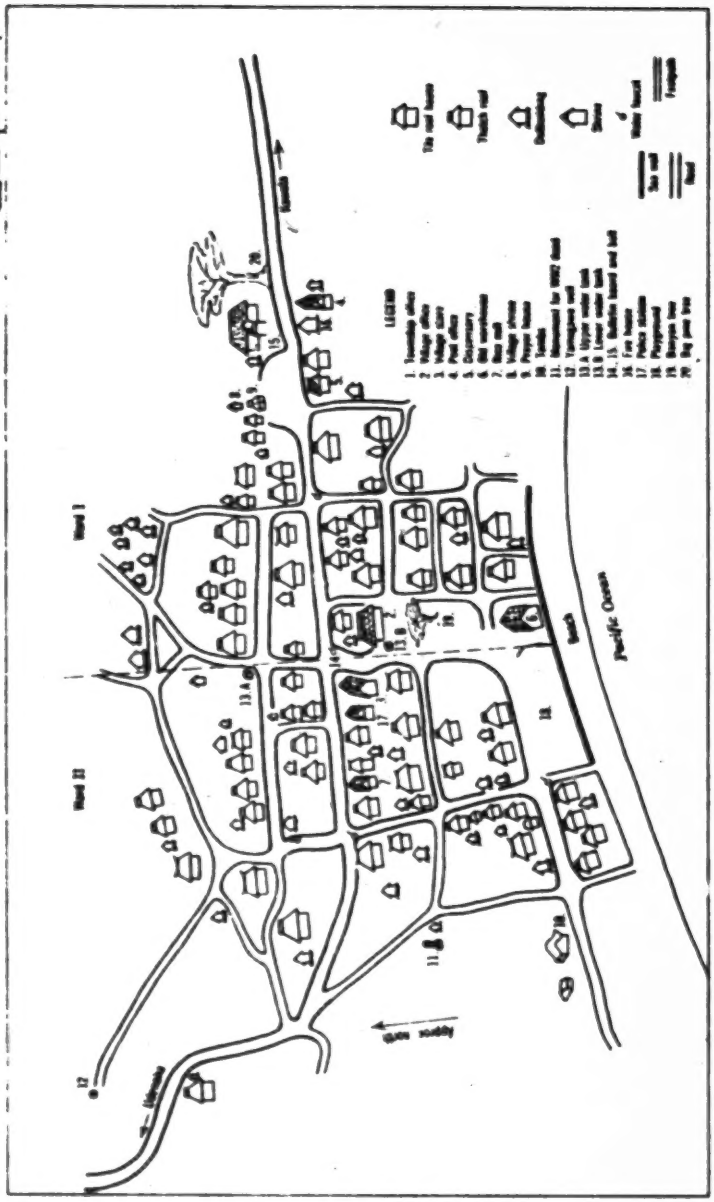
Laundering and Bathing

Laundering is done by women. There are no set customs about 296
doing it. Neither is it a community affair. In Hanashiro those
who have wells do their laundry in their own compound. Those
without wells either do it at a neighbor's well (without charge), [312]●
or at one of the community ponds designated for this purpose. In
Matsuda, the small stream, a pond, or wells are also used.

Clothes are rubbed, washed, and rinsed by hand. The custom
practiced in Matsuda up to 20 years ago of beating clothes against
stones has disappeared. If laundering is done in a spring or small
stream in the summer, it is common to take a bath after the washing
is done. In Hinatogawa, the women collect around an open faucet, or
the public water tank. These are in continuous use for laundry,
hair washing, and washing vegetables.

The passion for bathing, conspicuous among the fastidious 515
Japanese, is less in evidence in these villages. But it is also
difficult to bathe. Villagers must content themselves with washing
with a cloth, like a sponge bath. In Hanashiro villagers may go to

102
36
341
312
491
487



Map 2. Taira, central community.

2:Maretzki & Maretzki E-5 (1954-1955) 1963 AC7 Okinawa AC7
Taira

tion, a frame wood building, and the main store. On the eastern end of the village the road opens into a little square in front of the simple, open prayer house with a small concrete shrine in back, housing three sacred stones. Beyond these is the township office crowned by a mighty pine tree of tremendous and symmetric proportions, acclaimed by Taira people to be the oldest existing pine in Okinawa. Across from the office are the post office and the dispensary.

Closer inspection of the village shows former house sites which were not rebuilt. Some still have empty concrete shells or single concrete walls and abandoned pigsties or storage sheds. Some of the vacant lots are used as potato fields, others as play areas, the favorite being a large house lot surrounded by a concrete wall, near the main store.

Houses are set back a short distance from the roads and paths, and most face south. In spite of the hedges and trees, the house is easily accessible from the street—its orientation is therefore toward the community as a whole and, as will be seen later, open to visitors who can enter freely without going through winding garden paths and knocking on doors or entering through long corridors and passages. Each house lot is small, ranging from 1300 to 6050 square feet. Houses are set so close to each other that neighborly conversations from one to the other can be conducted without leaving one's premises. Although some privacy is attained by the hibiscus hedges and fences, few secrets can be kept from neighbors.

There are several focal areas where people frequently meet and interact. The main store is a geographical center. Its two bulletin boards make it a natural congregating point. The banyan tree, overshadowing the village office and the lower water tank, is another such place, and on any day of the year scores of children can be found on or under it. In prewar times it was flanked by important structures, but now the empty lots, which are adjacent, form a green which is used on good days for village meetings.

South of this green, and close to the water, stands the old warehouse, a concrete structure with tile roof which once served as a storage center for agricultural products shipped south by boat; now it serves as a village meeting playground, especially on rainy days. The open space around it, bordering on the sea wall, is also used as a play area and as a gathering place for young adults. Here people prepare firewood for sale and stack it to be picked up by the village truck. Houses once stood near the 10-foot sea wall but were not rebuilt after the war.

To the north of the store lies the upper water tank. Until several standing faucets were installed in 1955, this used to be another place where people met frequently. Water is diverted from a stream a mile

312 water is diverted from a stream a mile
365 above the village and piped into the upper and lower tanks where
[482] people fill their buckets which they carry home on a shoulder yoke.
[859] Both tanks always attract children. Before faucets were installed, the two spigots on each tank were closed with a wooden stopper which the children often pulled to get a drink or water to play in. An open lot surrounding the upper water tank is another popular play area.

361 On the eastern side of the village below the main road lies a flat sandy plain, separating the actual beach from the houses above. Children are frequently found playing there or walking along the beach to the mouth of the Noro Mata and Fukuji rivers, which reach the sea
[764] about 400 yards away. To the west of the central village lie the tombs
[211] and the monument for the war dead of the village.

487 Many hills around the village drop off vertically toward the south;
[133] these drops are partly effects of the geological conditions, such as karst depressions, partly caused by erosion of drainage during the heavy rains. Narrow paths, leading up the steep claylike hillsides, are slippery
[491] and very treacherous during rains. On the way to school in Kawata, the neighboring village, children have to pass a section of the road where river and rains have washed away the bank so badly that a misstep on the edge of the road could lead to a fall of more than 50 feet.

312 The little river which runs through parts of the valley behind Taira
[857] is another gathering place of children. A path alongside it leads into
[487] the hills and mountain forest lands. Seven minutes walking along this path takes one to Umugui, a natural swimming hole which also serves as one of the favorite laundry places. During the summer the river offers several other popular swimming spots downstream from Umugui.
[296] There is also a little concrete bridge in the rice fields beyond the houses, where adults and children go to wash laundry and sometimes pots and pans. Yamagawa well is a water hole, lined with concrete, near the northwestern part of Taira. Before water faucets were installed, girls frequently went there to wash their hair and do laundry.

857 Children go to the fields to look for flowers and berries or, in the
[484] case of older boys, to cut grass for animals. Distances covered by any child depend, of course, on the age. Younger siblings under 5 accompany the older ones to places beyond the area, but no expeditions extend to areas that are not also regularly traversed by adults in the course of their daily duties. Perhaps because of the multiple rivers and water sources, the beach offers less enticement than one might expect. On some days a group may decide to play on the beach, but since sand is also available throughout the village, everybody will soon shift back to some other area inland.

137 Tropical plants, bushes, and trees grow at sea level. At higher ele-

415 not use household equipment in their games. Instead they find broken Children do
857 dishes, old cans, and other discarded items in the trash heap.

354 The kitchen has no equipment other than the open fireplace with
[776] three hearth stones and a shelf above it on which a salt column, sym-
[654] bolizing kitchen deities, is kept. During the last few years, the Ryukyan government Home Extension Service has been trying to introduce brick stoves into farmhouses. Several families now have this kind of stove although it is expensive to build.

356 As far as can be superficially discerned, the home is kept clean. A visitor usually finds the floor of the house free of dirt. Footgear is taken off before entering, and children are reminded to wash their bare feet before going into the house. Less care is given to the area around the kitchen.

● 312 Outside the kitchen stand one or two jars to store water. A dipper is
415 kept nearby, and children playing in the vicinity or adults often walk to one of these jars for water, which they drink out of a dipper. There may also be an array of pots, pans, crates, baskets, and other equipment piled up around the kitchen. Knives and hatchets are openly left around among the equipment behind the kitchen.

351 The courtyard is an important place for domestic activities. Here
[231] women and girls wash dishes, mix pig food in large kettles, make bean
[514] paste in a hand stone grinder, and prepare grain for storage. There are
[364] vegetable patches in one corner of the yard, chicken coops, pigsties, goat pens, and an outhouse in another. Most garbage is fed to the pigs; the rest is thrown over the sea wall to roll down onto the beach.

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Chapter 2

Daily Routine

805 There are few clocks in central Taira. Except for the township office,
512 post office, and village store, only two or three families own a timepiece. Twice a day, at noon and 10 o'clock in the evening, a clerk strikes

2:Maretzki & Maretzki E-5 (1954-1955) 1963 AC7 Okinawa AC7
Taira

462 heavy sods in the rice paddy; nevertheless, women and younger girls
[241] often do this work along with the men and boys if time runs short. There are some women who prepare their farm land without the help of their husbands.

[313] In mountain work, women produce almost as much as men except
[843] that they do not handle the large logs. Even pregnant women make three or four daily mountain trips, sometimes up until the day of
[482] childbirth. Only the mode of carrying wood, like any load, differs for the sexes: a man uses a carrying stick supported on his shoulder, with two bundles attached to each end; a woman carries bundles on her back, tied and held in place by a tump line tied over her forehead. Women can carry loads of 100 to 120 pounds in this manner.

• [312] Men seldom carry water from the tank or faucet to the house; this is considered women's work, although younger boys are expected to
241 help at times. Work in the potato fields is mainly women's respon-
462 sibility. Their hands are also preferred in rice transplanting, where dexterity is needed in pulling out the tender shoots from the seed bed and replanting them in straight rows at measured intervals. Occasionally a young man helps, and boys sometimes try to work along with their sisters when they learn transplanting. Both men and women sow
462 the seed beds. In special activities, such as house building, a more dis-
[342] tinct division of labor can be observed. In any building activity, men do the structural work and women carry materials and cook for the
[653] men. The same division of labor is found on community projects, road building, fencing against wild pigs, or repairing the water pipes. In general, however, no special comment is made if either a man or woman performs work usually done by the opposite sex.

887 Men and women work in the fields and forests from ages 15 to 60.
462 When they approach 60, men like to "retire." If possible, they turn over their responsibilities as household heads to their eldest sons. From
[464] then on, they tend to stay home more and more. They can still help with less demanding work, making bamboo rings for firewood bundles, sawing wood, or doing odd jobs around the house. Approaching old age, most men become economically useless and in other ways contribute little to society. For old women, quite the contrary is true. Even grandmothers who are well over 60 seem strong and active. Most of
[241] them go to the fields to plant or harvest potatoes or other vegetables. One woman, well into her sixties and bent over from arthritis, took long walks to distant potato fields, with a heavy load of slips or potatoes in a basket on her back, a hoe on top of it, supporting herself on a
[855] stick. Other grandmothers look after the youngest children, thus freeing the mother for work. Old women also cook, help bundle firewood,

2:Maretzki & Maretzki E-5 (1954-1955) 1963 AC7 Okinawa AC7
Taira

793 lives like other villagers, spendin- most of her time in the fields and around her home. She has children and grandchildren, but the father of her children no longer lives in Taira. She regards the continuation of the old ceremonies as her holy duty even though she has to do without most of the accustomed material support from the village and [358] in spite of disbelief and lack of participation. She has sought in vain [346] to have the village make necessary repairs on the simple village shrine near the township office and on the little hut where the ancestral tablets of her predecessors are kept.

793 While many of the former ceremonies have been discontinued, the 782 priestess is still called on to officiate at house-building ceremonies, to [342] purify the lot, to offer prayers when the beams are raised, and to con- [776] duct the dedication when the house is finished. If the owner is mov- [778] ing out of an old house, the priestess notifies the fire deity so that he will follow to the new abode. On other occasions the priestess conducts prayers at the village shrine or at one of the other sacred places near the village. Many of the prayers are succorant—requesting the aid and blessing of the gods in accomplishing a certain goal. In general, as Lebra has pointed out (1958), ceremonies of asking for help are more numerous and elaborate than thanksgiving ones.

[312] On New Year's morning the priestess prays at the water well. Since [178] so many ceremonies have been abbreviated and are no longer carried out in traditional detail, the priestess apologizes for short cuts in her prayers. If she fails to offer prayers in all prescribed spots, she pacifies [794] the deities by facing in the direction of the sacred place where the [789] ceremony should have been conducted. Although the priestess is clearly best qualified to enter into communication with the deities, many older women seem to possess such power also, and if the priestess' assistants are not present, another older woman can function as her helper.

782 For these ceremonies food for offerings is contributed by the village. 788 The priestess, in a white gown, kneels, flanked by her assistants, also [262] in white, in front of a tray of sake, rice, or other food for the deities. Charcoal incense sticks are burned while brief prayers asking the [533] deities for a successful crop, thanking them for a harvest, or whatever is appropriate to the occasion are mumbled. On certain occasions the women sing chants. After these ceremonies, the priestess, her assistants and the few others present, usually old women, share the food offerings.

796 One of the most dramatic ceremonies is held on Boat Race Day in 793 lunar June. Priestesses from several villages gather near Taira. During the ceremony the Taira priestess stands in the middle of a circle formed by the other priestesses and helpers, beating a drum as the

312
854
296
415

Women washing at water tank.

Women transplanting rice.

243
291

Woman transplanting.

Carrying wood.

[482]

[p 456-B]

857
226
854
291

Children catching small fish.

Girls washing their laundry.

857
291
302

[296]
[415]
←

[482]
→
[312]

Carrying water while their mother is recovering from giving birth.

[243]
→

Boy harvesting.

241 311 312 [131] [132] Yields Per Acre Because Okinawa is a sub-tropical country, crops can be grown the year around. Hence the low productivity of a land subject to natural disaster such as drought and typhoons is somewhat compensated for. In the limestone areas of Shimajiri ground water is scarce except after fairly heavy rains. Nanahan has nine small ponds, or kumui, where people wash clothes and sweet potatoes and in which grows the water convolvulus, or unchēbā. Farmers say that if a drought lasts three months, crops do not yield at all. All remember the great drought of 1895 (Meiji 28-nen) when no rain fell for seven or eight months. Even wells dug in river bottoms dried up. The 23 households of Nanahan at present have eight small wells and one large community well which was dug in 1948. Little ditches on the hillsides lead rainwater to the rice paddies, and are fixed so that the water can be directed into wells. If a paddy field is near the farmer's house, a drainage ditch is dug to it for the disposal of used household water which is considered to contribute to a field's fertility. Tables VII and VIII show the yield of crops in Okinawan and American terms.

241 433

Table VII

Crop	Yield per tan[1]	Bushels per acre[2]
Summer rice	1.10 koku	41.1 bushels brown rice
Winter rice	1.16 koku	43.3 bushels brown rice
Upland rice	.72 koku	26.9 bushels brown rice
Common barley	.51 koku	10.4 bushels
Wheat	.59 koku	12.1 bushels
Naked barley	.52 koku	10.6 bushels
Millet	.38 koku	7.85 bushels
Common European millet	.40 koku	8.17 bushels
Soybeans	.70 koku	14.3 bushels
Green peas	.55 koku	11.3 bushels
Broad beans	.71 koku	14.6 bushels
Kidney beans	.71 koku	14.6 bushels
Peanuts	.83 koku	17.2 bushels

Table VIII

Crop	Yield per tan	Tons per acre
Sweet potatoes	1,762 kin	47.6
Irish potatoes	2,176	58.8
Cabbage	3,540	96.1
Other leafy vegetables	1,669	45.1
Giant radish	2,677	72.2
Carrots	2,439	65.85
Pumpkins	2,090	56.5

[1] Ryūkyū tōkei hōkoku, Vol. 3, No. 3, p. 1, 1953 (data for Okinawa Guntō).

[2] Converted according to standard indices, as given in SCAP, Natural Resources Section, Report No. 143, Tokyo, 1951.

The yard in which the Okinawan home stands is also rather uniform in its appearance. It is usually surrounded by a stone wall or a thick hedge for protection against winds. Inside the gate is a himpung, a short wall that prevents one from looking straight through the gate into the house. The space between the himpung and the house is hard earth; this is where mats are spread for drying grain and where many other household tasks are performed. This yard space may be lined on one or both sides with outbuildings for the storage of tools and crops and for housing livestock---two or three goats, and here and there an ox or a horse. Behind the house is a pigsty. There may also be a chicken-coop, but chickens often run loose. There are usually a few trees in the yard, often a clump of bananas. Behind the house is also the toilet; formerly it was combined with the pigsty, but now it is usually an oil-drum. In many villages every house has its own well, but even where wells are fewer there is almost sure to be a cistern beside the house to catch rain-water. The house and yard will be discussed again later in relation to sanitation and health (see Chapter IX).[1]

The social unit that occupies such a house and yard is the family. The structure of the family is also dealt with in detail by Pitts in Chapter VII. Let it suffice to say here that ideally the first son stays with his parents after his marriage while younger sons establish separate households. Thus the family consists of a couple and their unmarried children or a couple with a married first son, his wife and children, and his unmarried brothers and sisters. The deaths of one or more members may reduce the family without breaking it up. Two married couples, parents and grandparents of the youngest generation, is the usual maximum. If two married sons live under the same roof it is usually regarded as a temporary expedient. Thus while the total number of persons in the household may be as many as a dozen, the average number is a little less than five.

The family, that is, the members of the household, is an economic unit, a social unit, and a ceremonial unit. As an economic unit the members of a household work together, producing for and consuming from a common stock. They cooperate with other households on the basis of common interest as neighbors. They form a social unit within the "han", the "ku", and the "son", they are registered as a unit in the "koseki", and may have only one vote---cast by the head of the house---in local elections. As a ceremonial unit they form part of a numbered and graded system based on common descent.

The Structure of Kinship Relations In traditional Okinawan society, as in other societies of East Asia, the fundamental unit is the family and the basic axis within the family is a vertical one running through the male line, the father-oldest son axis.[2] The basic values that support this structure are unity and continuity. Individuals are of varying importance to the family depending on their closeness to the father-first son axis; females are less important than males; younger sons

[1] For a more detailed account of the house and yard see Glacken, 1953, Chapter 5.

[2] I have borrowed this concept from Francis L. K. Hsu, to whose writings I am indebted.

[Kitazato]

is paying adequate rentals for lands used in Japan, and it is their contention that Okinawa is being discriminated against because she is weak. Because of this some wish that Japan were back in control, believing that their interests would be better served. One hears no comments on the presence of Americans in the islands or on the legality of building bases there, for they concede that the outcome of the war granted that; yet, they are bitter about the loss of their livelihood and what they feel to be neglect on the part of the military government. Long accustomed to a paternalistic government which directed many aspects of their lives, they are now at a loss to understand this seeming indifference to their present circumstances. They are completely unmoved by argument, which might seem logical to an American, that Congress has not appropriated sufficient funds, for they do not distinguish between the various divisions of American government---it is all American to them. They point to the high standard of living enjoyed by the American personnel and their families stationed on the island and make the inference that there seems to be no lack of funds for their needs.

The villagers say that they have received three payments from military government through May, 1954. The first of these paid for the cost of removing and rebuilding their homes. This amounted to a flat payment of ¥6000 ($50) per house, which they say was inadequate. The first of the land payments was made in June of 1953; the villagers assert that they were paid at pre-war rates, and one person who owned 5480 'tsubo' described the payment as a "laugh". The second payment for the use of their lands was made in May, 1954, while the author was studying the village. This time the payments were said to be substantially higher especially in certain categories; yet, they contend that payments are still far below current rentals. In this payment, ¥5.40 per 'tsubo' per year was paid for grade one house lots, but in Kijikina the owner of one house claimed that he paid ¥24 per 'tsubo' per year for rental on his house lot. Grade one dry fields were paid for by the military government at a rate of ¥3 per 'tsubo' per year; the farmers say that they can get about ¥60 per 'tsubo' in annual yield if this land is planted in beans or potatoes, and local rentals on this same type of land are about ¥15. They are angry at receiving but ¥3 for their land and having to pay ¥15 to rent equivalent land. They are also dissatisfied with the manner of payment for grass land and tomb land which are paid for by the plot regardless of size; thus, they say that the person who has two small plots of 10 'tsubo' each receives twice as much as the man who owns a single, larger 100 'tsubo' plot.

Effect of the Land Loss on the Village: Physical Appearance On first entering any one of the three segments of Kitazato one is struck almost immediately by a level of poverty considerably below that of other Okinawan villages. This is particularly true of Hama, whose houses are jammed tightly together on a treeless beach. Most of the houses consist of a single room which serves as living and sleeping quarters; a small lean-to kitchen is attached on the side. The floor space of the houses was considerably smaller than those of Kanegusuku. Several brackish wells supply the community with water. The Anahana and Kijikina settlements in the hills have a more attractive appearance due to a large number of young pine trees and a small stream in the area, giving a park-like atmosphere; however,

751 Social factors contributing to poor sanitation stem mainly from the
312 failure of the individual in Okinawan society to take individual action.
364 For example, four unrelated families, one of which I knew well, rented the
156 four quarters of a house in the city. The well beside the house was badly in need of a drainage system; the water from everyone's laundry and bathing formed a large puddle around the concrete well-top and eventually sank into the ground, no doubt to re-enter the well, which of course also provided drinking water. No one made a move to do anything about this individually. Finally the owner of the house suggested that the several families join with him on a certain day in digging a drainage ditch. This was done. However, instead of digging a ditch to allow the water to run down hill and away, they dug the ditch only a few feet into a tiny field on the same level as the house and well. They did not feel that they could dig a ditch that led the water onto the land of the family who lived below, despite the fact that this was the natural lay of the land and despite the fact that the water was now sinking into the ground above the well of another neighbor. It was felt that only if all the neighbors joined to dig ditches together to allow all the water to drain to the municipal drainage ditch beside the street, only then would it be proper to let one's old wash water drain into another's yard. So far as I know this joint action was never taken.

751 At the same house, when one of the tenants moved out they dumped a
364 great pile of garbage in front of their room. Another tenant moved into the
156 room and, although the wife commented on the "bad sanitation" ('eisei ga warui'), for some time nothing was done about the pile of garbage. In this case the reason for inaction may have been pride rather than consideration of another's feelings. It seems likely that the new tenant felt that it was not his responsibility to remove the garbage and that it was also beneath his dignity to do so.

ooo Social factors of this sort can perhaps be attacked in two ways. First, by appealing to the individual, to his pride and his esthetic sense, and by creating a greater degree of personal identification, it may be possible to extend the "sphere of sanitation" beyond the floor of the house and out into the yard and perhaps even to the street. But this would not be an easy task. At the present time the average Okinawan is probably less embarrassed by a pile of garbage in his yard and the hundreds of flies that infest it, than he would be to be seen doing the menial task of cleaning it up. He would not feel embarrassed, however, if it were a community endeavor. And therefore as a second method of attack one might encourage more group action. But this requires the development of outspoken leadership.

178 It is possible that standards of sanitation are lower at the pre-
751 sent time than before the war. Residents of the village of Yamada spoke
744 of the "big cleanings" ('ōsōji') that were held at regular intervals before
[625] the war. On orders from the 'son' office every household in the village was obliged to clean up its house and yard and submit to inspection by the local police officer, a man who was much more feared than his present counterpart. At present clean-ups may be encouraged by the Youth Organization, Women's Organization, etc., but there is certainly less compulsion than
ooo formerly. Moreover, during the last days of the battle and for a period of

000 2) Stricter licensing of medical practitioners and gradual elimination of quacks. Again this must be done on the basis of a thorough knowledge of what native concepts are involved and it must be done in such a way that the undesirable practitioners do not appear to have suddenly lost their livelihood.

3) Encouragement of cooperation in clean-ups and the construction of sanitary facilities at the ku and han level, by appealing to local pride and by demonstrating that persons of high status may engage in physical labor.

[312] 4) The drilling of wells in areas that have insufficient water, for example in the village of Komesu in Miwa-son, where the only water is obtained from two wells outside the village itself, or on the island of Sesoko, where 3,000 people depend upon rainfall. In these communities sanitation is especially poor and skin disease rife.

Education Educational authorities are to be commended for the school reconstruction program, the extension of the schooling period, and the bringing of rural schools more nearly up to urban standards. In addition to the continuation of the building program we recommend:

1) Increasing the pay of teachers at least until it is comparably higher than that of policemen before the war (without of course downgrading the pay of policemen in the process). After the land question this is probably the problem most deserving immediate consideration. It must be remembered that teachers are a key group in the moulding of public opinion and that any hostility they might feel against the United States as a result of a decline in status since the war might easily be conveyed to their pupils and to other less-educated groups.

2) Encouraging students in the applied sciences, particularly agriculture, through scholarships, prizes, etc.

3) Discouraging the teaching of English below the high school level, as a waste of time, and determining that English be taught in high schools and at the university by competent teachers, of whom there are at present very few. It must be added that an American who has had no special training in the teaching of English to foreigners is probably not much better as a teacher than the Okinawan who knows all about teaching English but cannot speak it. Trained persons are essential.

4) The hiring at the university of competent Japanese scholars, who have considerably more prestige than either Okinawan or American scholars, for the teaching of subjects such as physical and biological sciences.

5) The hiring at the university of one or more of the noted Okinawan scholars now working in Japan.

Political Organization We did not do research on this problem as such but we feel that it warrants consideration as a highly important problem. We recommend that a research worker or team competent in political science and